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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Do High-School Teachers Teach the Subjects for Which They Are Trained?.....*J. A. Baer* 23

Dayton's New Elementary Curriculum.....*O. G. Brim* 28

Editorial Comment:
Why?..... 32

The Origin and Development of the Municipal University in the United States.....*R. H. Eckelberry* 34

Educational Readings..... 40

Notes on Sectional Programs..... 43

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
GEORGE F. ARPS, *Dean*

THE two preceding issues of the Bulletin gave the names of a large number of prominent out-of-state speakers who have been secured for the Eighth Annual Ohio State Educational Conference. In this issue the Executive Committee is happy to announce that President Clarence C. Little, of the University of Michigan, will address the first general session which meets on Thursday evening, April 12.

So many worth-while educators are scheduled for the sectional meetings that it will be difficult for those attending the Conference to choose their sections. Additional out-of-state speakers secured since the last issue of the Bulletin are:

Dr. A. C. Kinsey, Indiana University—Biological Science Section.

Robert W. Selvidge, University of Missouri—Industrial and Vocational Education Section.

Harvey Lemon, University of Chicago—Non-Biological Science Section.

W. T. Bovie, Northwestern Medical School—Joint Biological and Non-Biological Science Section.

Eata Sherman, Detroit, Michigan—Physical Education Section.

Jessie Burrall, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri—Religious Education Section.

A. H. Bell, Gary, Indiana—School Business Officials' Section.

Mildred Pope, Girard College, Pennsylvania—School Librarians' Section.

Henry R. Howett, Washington, D. C.—Special Education Section.

*At Columbus, April 12, 13, 14* *Reserve the dates*

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*Educational Research Bulletin*

# DO HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS TEACH THE SUBJECTS FOR WHICH THEY ARE TRAINED?

J. A. BAER
*Ohio State University*

Do high-school teachers teach the subjects for which they are trained? This question is frequently asked, but not so frequently answered with any degree of satisfaction. It is rather difficult to answer because of the varying opinions as to what constitutes adequate preparation, and because it is hard to get the necessary information with which to give an intelligent answer. For the purpose of this study, we have assumed that a teacher is adequately trained if she has had a major or a minor in the subject or subjects taught. Graduate training was not included.

The personnel cards of several thousand teachers had been collected for another study, and, fortunately, they contained data that could be used for this study. Of the total number of teachers represented, 2,049 were college graduates, of whom 1,463 were teaching in the senior high schools, and 686 in junior high schools.

While the data which we have did not enable us to make as extensive a study as that made by Hutson for Minnesota,[1] the facts seem to be a fair sampling of the conditions existing in Ohio at the time the information was collected. There is no reason to believe that present conditions are very different from those given in this study.

Table I gives a summary of the results for the senior high-school teachers. More than half of the teachers are teaching either the major or minor only, and a larger number of the women are thus engaged than of the men. A small percent are teaching both the major and the minor, so that 61.5 percent of the entire group are teaching only what they have been trained to teach. Another 17.8 percent are teaching one subject for which they have had training, together with some other subject or subjects.

About one-fifth of all the teachers are teaching subjects for which they seem to have had inadequate training. One might minimize this condition and say that only 20.7 percent of the teachers are not properly trained for the subject taught, but when one realizes that this means that one teacher out of every five is thus handicapped the situation really is serious. Conditions are undoubtedly better than they once were.

During the past summer a superintendent complained to me that it had become almost impossible to find a teacher who could teach any or

[1]Hutson, P. W. *Training of the High School Teachers of Minnesota.* Minneapolis, Minnesota, University of Minnesota, 1923. 79 pp. (College of Education, Educational Monograph, No. 31)

all of the high-school subjects. He also indicated that when he was a young man it was quite the expected thing that a high-school teacher could teach any subject in the curriculum. Such a change as this has come about quite rapidly as a result of state regulations on certification and teacher training. Teachers are now being certified for one or two subjects, rarely more, and as a usual thing they have at least a minor in the subject while in college.

or 46.3 percent, of the men are teaching neither the major nor the minor, and 20.4 percent combine some other subject or subjects with either the major or the minor.

Tables III and IV show an analysis of the training of, and the subjects taught by, the senior and junior high-school teachers, respectively. These tables are somewhat complicated in their construction but they give certain very definite information. In order to conserve space and simplify the tables only certain subjects have been presented. Since it is assumed that a minor is adequate training for teaching a subject, both majors and minors have been combined in the tables. Again, many teachers are teaching more than one subject, in fact, some are teaching four or five subjects. For the purpose of the tables we took both the first and second subjects as shown by the number of periods per week devoted to the subject. The sum of the respective totals in these tables greatly exceeds the total number of teachers: nearly every teacher has

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF TRAINING AND TEACHING OF SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

| | MEN | | WOMEN | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| Teaching major only | 163 | 31.8 | 435 | 45.8 | 598 | 40.9 |
| Teaching minor only | 68 | 13.3 | 121 | 12.7 | 189 | 12.9 |
| Teaching both major and minor | 28 | 5.5 | 85 | 9.0 | 113 | 7.7 |
| Teaching major with other subjects than minor | 62 | 12.0 | 109 | 11.4 | 171 | 11.7 |
| Teaching minor with other subjects than major | 33 | 6.4 | 56 | 5.9 | 89 | 6.1 |
| Teaching neither major nor minor | 159 | 31.0 | 144 | 15.2 | 303 | 20.7 |
| Total | 513 | 100.0 | 950 | 100.0 | 1,463 | 100.0 |

Men seem to be more venturesome than women in attempting to teach subjects for which they did not train. Only 15.2 percent of the women are teaching neither their major nor their minor, while 31 percent of the men have thrown their training to the winds and are trying to teach other subjects.

In the junior high schools, the data for which appear in Table II, more than one-half of the women confine their efforts to either their major or minor while only about one-fourth of the men—25.8 percent—are thus occupied. In fact, almost one-half,

both a major and a minor and many of them are teaching a first and second subject, that is, the same teacher may count from one to four times in the same table. While this causes a large amount of duplication, it does not hide the significant facts.

The horizontal rows show the major or minor, that is, the field of concentration of study. The vertical rows show the teaching field. An example will serve to illustrate the meaning. There are 37 teachers of large number—16 percent—have had their major or minor in history and civics. Another large group shows its major training in Latin.

The history and civics teachers have a wide variety of training. Only 31 percent show a major or minor in the subject which they are teaching, and almost as many—28 percent—had their training in the field of English.

English seems to be a favorite combination with almost any of the

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF TRAINING AND TEACHING OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

| | MEN | | WOMEN | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| Teaching major only | 13 | 14.0 | 256 | 43.3 | 269 | 39.2 |
| Teaching minor only | 11 | 11.8 | 67 | 11.3 | 78 | 11.4 |
| Teaching both major and minor | 7 | 7.5 | 31 | 5.1 | 38 | 5.5 |
| Teaching major with other subjects than minor | 15 | 16.1 | 42 | 7.1 | 57 | 8.3 |
| Teaching minor with other subjects than major | 4 | 4.3 | 30 | 5.0 | 34 | 5.0 |
| Teaching neither major nor minor | 43 | 46.3 | 167 | 28.2 | 210 | 30.6 |
| Total | 93 | 100.0 | 593 | 100.0 | 686 | 100.0 |

agriculture in the group studied. Of these 18 have a major or minor in agriculture, 4 in biology, 3 in chemistry, 2 in economics, 2 in English, 1 in general science, 1 in German, 2 in mathematics, 1 in physics, 1 in sociology, and 2 in other fields not named here. Almost one-half—48.6 percent—of these teachers of agriculture have had training in their specific field. The others are scattered over several fields.

Other groups are worthy of attention. Of the 854 different teachers of English 378, or 44 percent, have a major or minor in the subject. A other subjects. In several cases, more teachers have had their training in the field of English than in the subject which they teach. Latin is a good example of this. Ninety-eight out of the 330 Latin teachers were trained in English and only 94 in Latin.

German was not being taught in the high schools included here at the time when this study was made. Those who had specialized in German were scattered through the other fields, the largest single group being in English. English and Latin account for almost one-half—72 out of 148—

of the entire group of teachers trained in German.

Of the 136 who majored or minored in biology, only 29 are teaching biology; while 11 are teaching chemistry, 25 are teaching general science, 16 are teaching English, and 14 are teaching mathematics. The others that would fill unnecessary space. Enough has been written to show the working of the table. Those who are interested in special subjects will be able to read out of the table the essential facts for their subjects.

The data for junior high-school teachers are given in Table IV. Sub-

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF THE MAJORS AND MINORS WITH THE SUBJECTS TAUGHT BY SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

| MAJOR AND MINOR | FIRST AND SECOND SUBJECTS TAUGHT | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Agriculture | Biology | Chemistry | Economics | English | French | General Science | Geography | History and Civics | Home Economics | Latin | Manual Training | Mathematics | Physical Training | Physics | Physiology | Spanish | All Others | Totals |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) | (10) | (11) | (12) | (13) | (14) | (15) | (16) | (17) | (18) | (19) | (20) |
| Agriculture | 18 | 3 | 1 | .... | .... | .... | 5 | .... | .... | .... | .... | 5 | 2 | 1 | .... | 3 | .... | .... | 38 |
| Biology | 4 | 29 | 11 | 1 | 16 | 2 | 25 | 2 | 9 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 14 | 4 | 2 | 7 | 2 | 1 | 136 |
| Chemistry | 3 | 18 | 35 | .... | 9 | 2 | 22 | 2 | 6 | 14 | .... | 2 | 22 | 5 | 9 | 4 | 1 | 6 | 160 |
| Economics | 2 | 2 | .... | 4 | 7 | .... | 3 | .... | 17 | 1 | 1 | .... | 11 | .... | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 54 |
| English | 2 | 23 | 16 | 14 | 378 | 39 | 27 | 9 | 134 | 12 | 98 | 3 | 90 | 15 | 10 | 7 | 28 | 38 | 953 |
| French | .... | 4 | 4 | 1 | 51 | 61 | 4 | .... | 25 | 4 | 25 | .... | 19 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 28 | 4 | 236 |
| General science | 1 | 8 | 9 | 2 | 20 | 3 | 20 | 5 | 16 | 10 | 11 | 4 | 21 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 3 | 9 | 152 |
| German | 1 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 52 | 10 | 2 | .... | 14 | 3 | 20 | 2 | 16 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 8 | 6 | 138 |
| History and civics | .... | 13 | 3 | 9 | 128 | 15 | 20 | 9 | 146 | 2 | 32 | 2 | 48 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 10 | 25 | 473 |
| Home economics | .... | 1 | .... | 3 | 5 | .... | 2 | .... | 4 | 43 | 4 | .... | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | .... | 68 |
| Latin | .... | 2 | 1 | 2 | 75 | 16 | 2 | 2 | 23 | .... | 94 | 1 | 38 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 14 | 14 | 290 |
| Mathematics | 2 | 7 | 17 | 3 | 16 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 20 | .... | 10 | 8 | 131 | 6 | 17 | 2 | 3 | 13 | 276 |
| Physics | 1 | 4 | 8 | 1 | 2 | .... | 15 | 1 | 4 | .... | 1 | 3 | 12 | 2 | 22 | .... | .... | 1 | 77 |
| Sociology | 1 | .... | 1 | .... | 18 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 10 | .... | 6 | .... | 7 | 2 | .... | 1 | 1 | 6 | 57 |
| Spanish | .... | 1 | 1 | .... | 8 | 9 | 1 | .... | 4 | .... | 5 | .... | .... | 1 | .... | .... | 25 | 1 | 56 |
| Teaching methods | .... | 2 | 5 | 2 | 27 | 5 | 9 | 3 | 18 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 15 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 113 |
| All others | 2 | 8 | 8 | 2 | 42 | 8 | 14 | 5 | 28 | 2 | 15 | 10 | 20 | 25 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 23 | 227 |
| Totals | 37 | 127 | 124 | 45 | 854 | 174 | 188 | 42 | 478 | 96 | 330 | 44 | 467 | 81 | 86 | 41 | 135 | 155 | 3,504 |
| Percent specializing in subject taught | 49 | 23 | 28 | .... | 46 | 35 | 11 | .... | 27 | 45 | 13 | .... | 28 | .... | 26 | .... | 19 | .... | .... |

are scattered over the remaining thirteen subjects shown in the table.

Agriculture and home economics are taught by more teachers who studied those subjects than are any others. Forty-seven percent of the former and 63 percent of the latter are teaching the subjects for which they definitely trained. Each subject might be analyzed separately, but jects showing less than one percent of the total were grouped together under all other subjects, to make the table more wieldy.

As in the table for senior high-school teachers, the horizontal lines show the major or minor subject and the vertical lines show the subject taught. Practically one-fourth of all the teachers are instructing in English,

and more than one-fourth of the majors and minors are in English. Not all who have majors or minors in English, however, are teaching English, they are scattered throughout the teaching field. On the other hand, teachers who have majors or minors in all the other subjects listed are teaching English. The largest single group is trained in, and is teaching, English.

The home economics teachers make the best showing. There are fifty-four majors and minors, and 47 of these are teaching the subject. This is almost exactly one-half of the total number of teachers of the subject.

The situation in industrial arts is not fairly represented because of confusion in the use of the terms. Industrial arts and manual training should have been combined under one head. Inasmuch as this was not done in the original tables, it seemed that not enough would be gained to make it worth while to make the entire table over.

German has been included for the purpose of showing the comparatively large group trained for the subject who are not teaching it. There were no German teachers in the schools when these data were gathered. The German trained teachers had to take

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF THE MAJORS AND MINORS WITH THE SUBJECTS TAUGHT BY JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

| Major and Minor | First and Second Subjects Taught | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Biology | Drawing and Art | English | French | General Science | Geography | History and Civics | Home Economics | Latin | Manual Training | Mathematics | Physical Training | Physiology | Spanish | Vocational Guidance | All Others | Totals |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) | (10) | (11) | (12) | (13) | (14) | (15) | (16) | (17) | (18) |
| Biology | 15 | 1 | 7 | .... | 17 | 3 | 4 | .... | .... | 1 | 8 | 3 | 6 | .... | .... | 7 | 72 |
| Chemistry | 3 | 1 | 3 | .... | 11 | 4 | 6 | 22 | .... | 3 | 14 | 2 | 2 | .... | .... | 17 | 88 |
| Economics | .... | .... | 11 | .... | 1 | 1 | 8 | .... | .... | .... | 7 | 5 | 4 | .... | 3 | 5 | 45 |
| English | 4 | 9 | 205 | 15 | 23 | 32 | 62 | 10 | 30 | 2 | 53 | 13 | 19 | 5 | 6 | 22 | 510 |
| French | 2 | 1 | 27 | 23 | 4 | 7 | 10 | 3 | 10 | .... | 25 | 5 | 2 | 4 | .... | 1 | 124 |
| General science | 5 | 2 | 9 | 1 | 14 | 7 | 9 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 15 | 2 | 1 | .... | 1 | 5 | 77 |
| German | 2 | 2 | 18 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 10 | .... | 5 | .... | 15 | .... | .... | 1 | 2 | 2 | 66 |
| History and civics | 4 | 1 | 77 | 3 | 17 | 32 | 66 | 4 | 7 | 1 | 33 | 10 | 8 | .... | 4 | 26 | 293 |
| Home economics | .... | .... | 4 | .... | .... | 2 | 1 | 47 | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | 54 |
| Latin | 1 | .... | 35 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 15 | 4 | 27 | .... | 19 | .... | .... | 3 | 1 | 3 | 119 |
| Mathematics | 4 | 1 | 10 | .... | 15 | 3 | 11 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 73 | 4 | 1 | 2 | .... | 11 | 144 |
| Physics | 4 | .... | 1 | .... | 6 | 2 | 1 | .... | 1 | .... | 5 | .... | .... | .... | 1 | 6 | 27 |
| Sociology | .... | .... | 13 | .... | 2 | 3 | 10 | .... | 2 | .... | 9 | 3 | 1 | 1 | .... | 2 | 46 |
| Spanish | .... | .... | 11 | 6 | .... | 1 | 1 | .... | 1 | .... | 3 | .... | .... | 2 | 1 | 2 | 28 |
| Industrial arts | 2 | 1 | 2 | .... | 7 | 2 | 2 | .... | .... | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | .... | 1 | 1 | 27 |
| Teaching methods | 1 | .... | 23 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 9 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 17 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 85 |
| All others | 4 | 13 | 28 | 1 | 12 | 7 | 12 | 1 | 2 | 13 | 17 | 20 | 8 | 1 | 2 | 14 | 155 |
| Totals | 51 | 32 | 484 | 54 | 138 | 122 | 237 | 95 | 94 | 30 | 315 | 74 | 56 | 21 | 25 | 132 | 1,960 |
| Percent specializing in subject taught | 29 | .... | 42 | 42 | 10 | .... | 28 | 49 | 29 | .... | 23 | .... | .... | 10 | .... | .... | ..... |

other subjects or leave the teaching profession.

Table IV shows a comparatively large number trained in chemistry. Twenty-two, or one-fourth, of these are teaching home economics, 14 are teaching mathematics, and 11 are teaching general science. Those who had their training in English are teaching in all fields. No teachers were specifically trained for geography; the geography teachers were trained in all fields. One-fourth of them were trained in English, and another fourth in history and civics.

Tables III and IV indicate that there is an enormous waste in the educational process. Many teachers are teaching subjects for which they are not trained. This means that their preparation is, to a large extent, going to waste. It probably also means that they are not teaching the subjects which they adopted as well as they would, had they been trained in those subjects. The pupils are the losers.

The tentative answer to our question is that to only a limited extent are teachers teaching the subjects for which they are trained. With the increasing emphasis upon teacher training, and especially the certification for specific subjects, the probabilities are that conditions are improving, and will continue to improve. These rather intangible wastes retard the progress of education.

## DAYTON'S NEW ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

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WHENEVER a basic change in educational practice, such as curriculum revision, is necessary in order that practice may square with the results of research or the accepted educational principles, initial efforts to reform practice are awaited with keen interest. Educational theory and scientific research reveal problems and propose new guiding principles, but they do not provide the exact solution. Therefore, these new solutions will vary not only from the old but from each other. Each group attempting a solution will express its own interpretation of the new scheme of things and each, through its contribution, will aid in clarifying our ideas as to what type of new plan really is desired. Such initial attempts are usually undertaken by the more favored and foward-looking centers. Dayton's contribution not only serves the cause of education, but it also demonstrates the progressive spirit of the city's educational forces.[1]

The product of the efforts of the several committees is worked out with such detail and includes so many practical suggestions that it must be very helpful to the teacher. In fact, the pages abound in suggestions that have the flavor of the actual classroom. While not much reference is made to research, the practice advocated is generally in keeping with recent findings.

On the whole, the educational point of view expressed is quite modern. For example, a sane attitude

[1]Dayton Public Schools. *English*, 209 pp.; *Reading and Literature*, 82 pp.; *Spelling*, 54 pp.; *Library Manual*, 58 pp.; *The Social Studies*, 427 pp.; *Mathematics*, 186 pp.; *Extra-Socializing Activities*, 25 pp. Dayton, Ohio, Board of Education, 1927. (Curriculum Bulletin Nos. 1-7). These courses of study include Grades V through VIII.

is taken toward drill in mathematics. In the Introduction to the mathematics courses one reads:

> Drill is not taboo in modern education. Modern education demands drill but drill in connection with specific need, arising out of the child's actual experience or from a vicarious experience. However, drill should not continue over a period so long that the child loses sight of the reason for drill.[1]

An attempt is made throughout to relate education in all its phases to experience so far as is possible and to contribute through schoolwork to richer, more effective living. Teachers of reading and literature are cautioned not to sacrifice the aesthetic to the efficient. They should "make it possible for every child to push upon the door to this spiritual world [of literature] and to enter therein."[2]

While the advice on specific issues is quite acceptable, there seems lacking a rich and comprehensive background of educational theory. Teaching today has ceased being a matter of following a pattern or blueprint. It is a creative activity and teachers must be thinkers.

One can create and think independently only when he knows the aims and guiding principles of the game. Whatever philosophy of education a person may hold, it should be clearly and fully set forth, and its implications for educational practice in general and in the several fields pointed out. The place of each subject in the general scheme must be shown, as well as the principles and values related to each subject. For a committee to decide upon such matters takes time. To state them also takes space, yet nothing is more worth while or necessary if our aim is to free and guide the intelligence of the teacher.

Some space is given to stating the place in education of each subject in the Dayton curriculum. Much more should have been devoted to this, however. There should also have appeared the best interpretation of the modern theory of education which the joint committees could produce—not to be accepted by all teachers, of course, but merely to assure fundamental thinking on the part of the committees and to make clear their aims and assumptions to the larger body of teachers who will use the curriculum. Such an interpretation should also encourage the teachers to view their own work in relation to these or some other self-determined body of principles.

The most striking departure of the Dayton curriculum is its organization. In place of the old-type organization—an outline of the subject-matter, or the later type—a running discussion upon aims, subject-matter, methods, devices, and so on, the courses are taken up in a two-column arrangement. In the first column are listed the objectives; and, in the second, paralleling the objectives, are given the suggested procedures. This should tend definitely and rather effectively to foster in the teacher the habit of thinking of her work in terms of the desired results and the means for achieving them. The objectives are listed in serial order. The procedure in each instance is given. One gets the impression, in spite of a contrary suggestion in the introduction, that not much originality or creative thinking on the part of the teacher is expected.

There is a definiteness and finality about such a curriculum that would make it helpful to the beginning teacher and welcome to the unambitious. It would seem too confining and pattern-like, however, for the teacher who is keenly responsive to

[1] *Mathematics*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 6, p. 10.

[2] *Reading and Literature*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 2, p. 8.

the changing interests of children, who possesses imagination, and who has the urge to conceive new ends and the desire to create continually new and more effective means.

This effort to analyze our approved educational outcome into its specific elements has called for much thinking about educational matters. The results serve as helpful guide posts in organizing work or in teaching. But, after all, they are merely guide posts and not ends. Moreover, one cannot identify specifically the most valuable objectives. Aims and procedures are constantly changing; an active intelligence is continually redefining them. These goals are not realized one at a time in any serial order as one moves aside a curtain. Rather are they realized little by little, and many at the same time, much as objects gain clarity when the fog is lifting.

It is interesting to compare the Dayton and Denver curricula on this point. Denver likewise states objectives and procedures, but with this difference—in Denver the suggested objectives for any grade are stated at length in one section, and in a following section are given abundant suggested procedures. The teacher is left to determine which shall be realized—when and what procedures shall be utilized for certain goals. More intelligence on the part of the teacher is assumed. To make the opposite assumption, or to construct a curriculum as if one had, is a move in the wrong direction.

A second fundamental educational issue is involved in such a plan. The plan seems to imply that each special type of response shall be determined and specifically taught. For example, in the bulletin on English the teacher is directed to teach the child how to write eighteen different kinds of letters. The question involved here is whether education is a matter of teaching principles through specific concrete instances or whether it is a matter of establishing a pattern response for each slightly different situation. The latter seems to be the point of view in this instance, for the discussion on letter-writing does not make clear nor emphasize to the teacher, and through her to the child, the guiding principles of letter-writing.[1]

This is substituting training for education. Surely we must make our teaching bear more specifically and definitely upon the life of the child. Unless these specific situations with their minor differences are used as a basis for clarifying principles applicable to wider fields, we teachers have failed to render any significant contribution. Throughout the Dayton curriculum this difficulty appears. It seems to be inherent at present in the specific objective approach.

The course of study in arithmetic presents some striking features. In the first place the work of each grade is divided into two parts. Part I is organized to develop habits and attitudes, and Part II, to develop skills and knowledge. The implication is that these are to be achieved separately. Such a distinct separation is little short of astounding, yet no special explanation is made concerning the partitioning of the child's development. It is treated as if this were the usual concept of child growth.

A second interesting feature is found in the procedure for determining the objective for Part I. In order to know what habits and attitudes should be developed, the committee collected such experiences of the children as had some bearing upon the number problem. These were analyzed and the desirable habits and attitudes listed. This attempt to

[1]Curriculum Bulletin No. 1, pp. 109–18.

relate objectives to life situations had varying success. At times the relation of the objective to the situation is quite apparent, for instance, when in depicting a boy's experience in a grocery store, the teacher seeks to develop the correct attitude toward work and employer.[1] The connection is not so apparent when the teacher aims to develop the habit of systematic saving by balancing an account.[2] However, the departure is extremely commendable.

If one were to read the section on habits and attitudes in the year's work in arithmetic without having read the Introduction, he might wonder somewhat whether this were a course in arithmetic or civics. The fact is that the section largely concerns the civic habits and attitudes. The explanation is found in the Introduction which says:

> Unless, hand in hand with the power of quantitative thinking goes character building, the power of quantitative thinking may become a sword upon which its possessor may fall. . . . . It then becomes evident that the teaching of mathematics must concern itself quite as much with emotional reactions in connection with quantitative thinking, as with quantitative thinking itself.[3]

The first is doubtless true. The second would be true if one were including the school as a whole. The present organization of school-work, however, implies concentration for a brief time on a certain aspect. To mix civics and mathematics fifty-fifty leads to confusion.

By uniting civics, history, and geography in a combined social-studies course, Dayton is in keeping with modern thinking and has avoided many troublesome and fruitless issues. The tendency of the mechanics of government to creep into civics, the over-emphasis upon war and political questions in history, the problem of dates, the relative importance of periods and aspects of history, the question of significant facts in geography, the relative emphasis upon countries, and so on, all these have been side-stepped and energy saved for other more significant issues. The social committee selected topics or problems.[5] These in turn determined the facts to be studied. The result is a far more socializing course than if each subject had been treated separately, for if each had been separately treated, it is likely that the anti-social, anti-educational qualities of earlier courses in civics, history, and geography would have left their mark.

In organizing such a combined course, however, great care is needed. The danger that lurks in the plan is apparent in the Dayton product. The values of history and geography are only partially realized. The course is organized under three major headings—broadmindedness, cooperation, and service. Under the influence of these three aims, it turns out to be primarily a glorified civics course. History is brought in as it contributes to any problem, but the total amount is small.[5] Geography likewise contributes now and then to problems. In addition, under "broadmindedness" in Grade V, the peoples of several countries of Asia receive some attention. In Grade VI the peoples of Europe are considered.

Although the study of history and geography has in the past been rather sterile, these fields have large contributions to make which are not best secured by nothing more than

(*Continued on page 39*)

[1] *Mathematics*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 6, p. 54.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 98.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 9.

[4] In this they do not seem to have used the results of other's research but depended upon their own.
[5] *The Social Studies*, Bulletin No. 5, p. 340.

*Ohio State University*

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## WHY?

SOME time ago I stood at the base of Stone Mountain a few miles from Atlanta and gazed at the workmen cutting away on a tremendous piece of sculpturing. Eventually there will appear on the side of that mass of rock a bas-relief nearly a quarter of a mile in length and more than one hundred fifty feet in height, yet so proportioned to distance that each figure will appear to be life-size. The workmen on the face of the mountain, where lines which will appear to be inches are literally feet in length, get no perspective of their creation. They work only from lines and measurements, this line straight so many feet and inches, this hole drilled to a given depth. Thinking in terms of education, I have been wondering to what extent the workmen in our schools toil with limited perspective, little understanding of why the activities are being conducted, why the given materials of instruction are being used.

Perhaps it is unnecessary for the workmen on Stone Mountain to be sculptors themselves or to see clearly at all times the influence of a line cut to a given depth. Perhaps it is only necessary that they should be able to read their instructions and guide the power drills and chisels. In the schoolroom, however, where the teacher is engaged daily in modifying the lives of children, most of us believe that she should have a clear vision of the final product and appreciate the effect of each act upon the product. The training of children is more difficult than making sculptured figures appear natural at a distance of half a mile; and helping to develop children into adults who will act properly, think constructively, accept responsibility, and feel generously is vastly more important.

Consequently, it would seem that those who have charge of the education of youth—the school administrators and teachers above all others—should be constantly seeking perspective, questioning the value of procedures, and probing for fundamental reasons back of their work. The questioning spirit, however, is no more prevalent than it should be; in fact, many of us feel it is much less so. It is so easy to copy a device, follow blindly a method, adopt a textbook, and advocate a procedure for no better reason than that it is being used in many places and is recommended by a well-known authority. The reason which a teacher will probably give for presenting certain material to her children is that it is in the course of study. The superintendent, also, often justifies the inclusion of questioned material by the statement that most "good" schools teach it at that time.

Custom or concensus seem such adequate reasons for educational procedure. But are they? Should not each of us seek to break through the smoke screen of platitudes and honestly attempt to decide for ourselves what we are trying to do, the appropriateness of the materials we are using, and the adequacy of the means we

are employing? Those who will spend fifteen minutes in raising questions about educational procedure, in conscientiously challenging each answer that arises in his own mind, and in asking the question "why?" will discover that they have more often accepted and assumed than sought the basic educational foundation from which procedure should start.

Of course, each of us cannot answer completely the questions that will arise in a self-examination. We must seek from the students of special problems the answers to some of the questions. The results of experimental investigations must be utilized. But, the teacher should keep herself keenly conscious of the ultimate product and the relation of her particular work to this final whole. Materials, methods, and devices will be offered her in greater abundance than she can accept. Her selection should be based on a regard for fundamentals.

These questions should be constantly in the mind of the teacher: What growth in the child do I hope to assist by the teaching of this material? Is it the best material available for this purpose? What method of teaching will be most effective? They help her keep perspective. They assist in making her not merely a workman, guided by lines and instructions, but lift her to companionship with the creative artists.

E. J. A.

Dr. Odell has presented a well-organized, well-written, and scholarly work in his study of high-school students who entered college.[2] It should be of value and interest to any who are concerned with school and college administration.

Of the 11,321 high-school Seniors whose intelligence quotients and class marks were studied, those who planned to attend college were of slightly higher intelligence than the entire group; those who actually did attend college had a mean intelligence quotient five points higher than that of all high-school Seniors and a mean average high-school mark two points higher. "Those still remaining in college at the end of the year were slightly superior to the whole group of those entering." In the mean intelligence quotient, students who attended technical schools and large universities ranked high; students in liberal-arts colleges and small universities were average; and those attending teachers' colleges, professional, art, and music schools were somewhat below average.

College students are a select group. "The excess of superior over inferior students is at least 25 percent (of the whole) greater among college entrants than among all high-school graduates. On the other hand, the amount of selection occurring is not great enough that it can be said that inferior students do not enter college in relatively large numbers." . . . . "It appears that a fairly large fraction of the ablest high-school Seniors are not attending college."

The Tyrall Geography Exercises, published by Palmer Company, consist of fifteen tests. Six are on the United States and its possessions; three on North America as a whole; two on Asia; and one each on South America, Europe, Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands. Each exercise consists of fifty completion sentences which represent facts concerning the country under consideration.

[2]Odell, Charles W. *Are College Students a Select Group?* Urbana, Illinois, University of Illinois, 1927. 45 pp. (University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXIV, No. 36)

# THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITY IN THE UNITED STATES[1]

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## EARLIER EXAMPLES OF THE MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITY

THE College of Charleston, at Charleston, South Carolina, bears the distinction of being the oldest municipal university in the United States. It owes its origin to the interest and efforts of a number of citizens who early became interested in establishing a college, and who, by 1785, had subscribed sixty thousand dollars for that purpose.[2] The institution was chartered that same year as a private corporation under the control of a self-perpetuating Board of Trustees.[3] It was opened for students in 1790, but soon fell into financial difficulties, and by 1811 was forced to close.[4] In 1824, it was reopened as a grammar school, but under the leadership of the principal, the Rev. Jasper Adams, its work was soon extended and again became collegiate in scope.[5] The college enjoyed a brief period of prosperity, but troubles again soon overtook it. Short-sightedness and meddlesomeness on the part of the trustees; the earlier bad reputation of the college; sensational attacks on the value of the traditional college education by Thomas S. Grimke, a citizen; and other causes brought on a decline in enrollment, income, and prestige which continued in spite of all efforts to stop it. In December, 1836, college exercises were suspended.[6]

The people of Charleston and the city Council, however, regarded the work of the college as intimately bound up with the welfare of the city, and were unwilling to see it discontinued. During the suspension in the early twenties, appropriations by the city Council had been discussed as a means of enabling the college to resume operations, and in 1826 the council had shown its interest in the welfare of the institution by appropriating two thousand dollars for the purchase of philosophical apparatus.[7] On July 18, 1837, the Council unanimously passed a resolution to the effect that the college was "of momentous consequences to the people of Charleston and to the inhabitants of the adjacent districts" and requesting a conference with the trustees looking towards its reorganization.[8] The result of the negotiations thus inaugurated was an agreement between the Council and the Board of Trustees whereby the latter agreed to turn over to the Council for the use of the city its property and collegiate privileges, and the Council agreed to accept and maintain the college. An act granting permission for this transfer was passed by the Legislature on December 20, 1837.[9] By the terms of this law, the control

[1] See preceding issue of Bulletin for first article in this series under the same title.

[2] "A Historical Sketch of the College of Charleston, South Carolina," *American Quarterly Register*, 3:164, November, 1839.

[3] *The Statutes at Large of South Carolina* (7 Vols.). Columbia, South Carolina, A. S. Johnson, 1840. IV, 674–78. This charter having proved to be somewhat ambiguous and cumbersome, a new one was granted in 1791. *Ibid.*, V, 200.

[4] *American Quarterly Register, loc. cit.*

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 171; "Charleston College," *American Journal of Education*, 3:553–54, September, 1828. This article is credited to the *Charleston Gazette*.

[6] *American Quarterly Register*, 3:176. "Resume of Minutes of College of Charleston Trustees and Standing Committee," (Typewritten), September 4, 1836, March 1, 1837.

[7] *Ibid.*, February 15, 1826.

[8] *Charleston Courier*, July 22, 1837.

[9] *Statutes at Large*, VII, 153–54.

of the institution was to be in the hands of a board of twenty-one trustees, consisting of the Mayor and the Recorder of the city, ex-officio, three members elected annually by the Council, and sixteen elected for life from its own number by the existing board. All vacancies in the Board, except those created by ex-offico members, were to be filled by the council.

In March, 1838, the institution was reopened under the new management,[1] and since that time, except for a brief suspension in 1838 on account of a yellow fever epidemic and another in 1865 because of the war and siege, it has been in continuous operation. The college has always conceived its principal function to be the provision of a liberal, not a professional, education, and only in the later years of the nineteenth century did it depart to any considerable degree from the traditional classical-mathematical course of study, and begin to provide for technical and practical courses. In spite of a war-impoverished constituency in which industrial development has been slow, a small enrollment (up to the time of the World War it did not at any time exceed ninety), and inadequate financial resources, it has struggled consistently, and on the whole sucessfully, to maintain high scholastic standards.

Conditions brought about by the World War have been largely responsible for several important changes in the policy of the college. These changes include the opening of the college to women in 1918; the granting of free tuition to residents of the city, in 1920, and of the county, in 1923; and the establishment of a night school of commerce, in 1922. As a result of these changes, the enrollment had increased by 1923-24 to 194, exclusive of 179 in the 1923 summer school.

The College of the City of New York owes its origin to the initiative of the city's Board of Education which was elected in 1846. At that time, little or no provision had been made by either public or private agencies for the education beyond the elementary grades of those who could not afford to pay the fees demanded by various privately managed institutions. The Board of Education, under the leadership of its president, Townsend Harris, took up the project of establishing a free college or academy for the instruction of students who had been pupils in the public schools of the city.[2] In February, 1847, a memorial was presented to the Legislature asking permission to establish such an institution. The reasons urged in the report of the select committee of the Board of Education and the memorial to the Legislature were that such an institution would democratize education by bringing it within the reach of those unable to pay college fees and by providing a type of education which would meet the needs of a much larger proportion of the population than did that of the traditional college; would increase the prestige and improve the work of the public schools; and would tend to dignify the work of those engaged in the mechanical arts and to promote "a spirit congenial with our Republican institutions."[3]

The legislature granted the request of the Board, subject to the approval of the voters of the city at the next school election. At that election, the voters registered their approval by an

[1] "Resume of Minutes," *op. cit.*, March 2, 1838.

[2] *Report of the Select Committee.* . . . . . [New York], Board of Education, 1847.

[3] *Ibid., passim; Report of the Executive Committee.* . . . [New York, Board of Education], 1848. pp. 4-8.

overwhelming majority.[1] The Board proceeded at once to the establishment of the "free academy" and it was opened for students on January 15, 1849. It gave a five-year course of study—one introductory and four college years—and was open to boys who had been students in the public elementary schools of the city and who passed the prescribed entrance examination.[2]

While the academy gave only a five-year course of study beyond the elementary schools, it was claimed that, due to the strict entrance examination and the heavy schedule of studies required of the students, completion of the course represented a degree of attainment at least equal to that of the ordinary college.[3] A partial recognition of the collegiate status of the institution came in 1854 when, on the recommendation of the faculty and the Board of Education, the Legislature granted the right to confer the usual degrees and diplomas in the liberal arts.[4] Thereafter the Academy offered the degrees of Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science. The prestige of the school still suffered, however, because it was not a college in name. This led in 1866 to the rechartering of the institution as a distinct body corporate known as The College of the City of New York. The members of the Board of Education were made ex officio trustees of the college.[5]

Limitations of space preclude an account of the development of the institution from 1866 to the present. It must suffice to state that this development has included the lengthening of the college course to four years beyond high school, and the extension of the scope of the work until the institution now includes, besides the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, schools of technology, of business and civic administration, and of education, and a great variety of courses especially adapted to the needs of the civil servants of the city. The enrollment has increased to about twenty thousand; there has been a great increase in the income and resources; and the women have finally been admitted to those courses which they cannot secure at Hunter College.[6] Since 1900 the College has been under the control of a Board of Trustees distinct from the Board of Education. These Trustees are appointed by the Mayor.[7]

Cincinnati was first settled in 1788 and developed rapidly into an important commercial center and also into an important center of learning, culture, and educational effort. As early as 1807, Cincinnati University was chartered, but, due to financial difficulties and misfortunes, it was never opened.[8] In 1819, both the Cincinnati College and the Medical College of Ohio were established.[9] In 1824, the Hughes bequest and, in 1826, the Woodward deed of trust were executed for the purpose of providing for the free education of poor children beyond the elementary grades.[10] In 1829, the city secured a school charter which gave it, for the first time in the history of the state, a tax-supported free system of common schools. It was at Cincinnati that

[1] Cosenza, Mario E. *The Establishment of the College of the City of New York.* . . . . New York, Associate Alumni of the College of the City of New York, 1925. p. 203.

[2] *Annual Report of the Board of Education.* New York, [Board of Education], 1853. pp. 7, 10–12.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 5–7.

[4] *Laws of New York, 1854.* Chapter 267.

[5] *Ibid., 1866.* Chapter 264.

[6] A brief account of Hunter College, the college for women maintained by New York, will be given in the next article in this series.

[7] *Laws of New York, 1900.* Chapter 757.

[8] *Ohio Laws.* V, 64; Goss, C. F. *Cincinnati, the Queen City.* Chicago, S. J. Clarke Publishing Company, 1912. p. 224.

[9] *Ohio Laws.* XVII, 37, 46.

[10] *Report of the Special Committee on the University Project.* Cincinnati, 1869. pp. 10, 15.

the Western Academic Institute and Board of Education was organized in 1829 as a local educational association, and it was on the initiative of this association that the first General Convention of Teachers of the Western Country was called in 1831.[1] This meeting resulted in the organization of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, one of the most important of early educational associations.[2] The Cincinnati Astronomical Society was organized in 1842 for the purpose of erecting and maintaining an observatory. The observatory was built by means of small subscriptions secured from some seven or eight hundred citizens of the city.[3]

The University of Cincinnati is the direct outgrowth of the bequest made by Charles McMicken, a wealthy retired merchant of the city. On his death, in 1858, he left the greater part of his property to the city of Cincinnati "for the purpose of building, establishing, and maintaining. . . . two colleges for the education of white boys and girls."[4] The city immediately accepted the property, and in December, 1859, the Council passed an ordinance providing for the establishment of the McMicken University to carry out the terms of the will. The institution was placed under the control of a board of seven directors—the Mayor, ex officio, and six members elected by the Council, the term of one expiring each year.[5]

Many people doubtless expected a university to arise at once, but serious difficulties were in the way. That part of the McMicken property located in Louisiana (nearly half of the total) was lost to the city by a decision of the Supreme Court of that state.[6] The property in Cincinnati was involved in a lawsuit brought by the McMicken heirs, which was not finally settled until 1861.[7] Much of this property, when it did become available, was found to be in poor repair and was not situated in the high rental area of the city. The property was subject to annuities during the lifetime of certain individuals. The result of all this was that the income was entirely inadequate to maintain a college.[8] In 1868, the income had increased sufficiently for the directors to open an industrial art school—the McMicken School of Drawing and Design—as the first department of their university.[9] This school proved to be popular and entered at once on a successful career.

During the decade of the sixties, as it became increasingly evident that the McMicken estate alone would not be sufficient to maintain a university as his will contemplated, a movement got under way for a union of various educational trusts in the city as a means of establishing a real university on an adequate financial basis. In this movement, the Council, the Superintendent of Schools, and the Board of Education played leading parts.

Probably the most influential agency in crystallizing sentiment in favor of a union of trusts and the creation of a university was the Special Committee on the University

[1] *Ohio Laws.* XXVII, 33; Miller, E. A. *History of Educational Legislation in Ohio from 1803-1850.* Chicago, University of Chicago, 1920. p. 47. (University of Chicago, Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. III, No. 2)

[2] *Transactions of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the College of Teachers.* Cincinnati, Josiah Drake, 1835. p. 3.

[3] *First Annual Report of the Director of the Cincinnati Observatory.* [No place nor date.] pp. 39–40.

[4] *The Will of Charles McMicken of Cincinnati, Ohio.* College Hill, Ohio. Printed at the office of the *Cincinnatus*, 1858. p. 19.

[5] *Laws and Ordinances of the City of Cincinnati, 1866.* Chapter 45.

[6] *Louisiana Annotated Reports.* XXIV, 465.

[7] *United States Reports.* XXIV, 465.

[8] *Report of the Directors of the McMicken University, 1861.* p. 21.

[9] *Ibid., 1868-69.* p. 584–85.

Project, appointed by the Board of Education in 1868. The following year, this committee issued an elaborate and carefully documented report, tracing the history and status of various educational trusts in the city and urging the union of as many as possible of these to form a university under the control of the city. The principal reasons which were urged in favor of the creation of a university are as follows:

WHEREAS, There are in this city several educational interests under public control, but each under different management; and

WHEREAS, With these various institutions and the great expenditure of money for them, we should have in this city a system of education of the highest attainable character, and unsurpassed in this country, but which cannot be done under the present disconnected interests; therefore

*Resolved*, With the view of consolidating the various educational interests of this city, . . . . under one management for their highest development, . . . . that a committee of five be appointed. . . . .[1]

As lovers of our fair city and her prosperity, we ought never to rest satisfied until we have made her the educational center of the Mississippi Valley. We have a right to expect from her age and position that she should become such. This university when established, if conducted in the spirit of the people and age, will be a powerful means of bringing about this desirable consummation.[2]

Some of the fruits of such a university would be to draw together a group of *literati* whose influence would benefit our whole community. It would open the door of higher education to hundreds in our own midst who are now hopelessly excluded from the same. Its retroactive effect would infuse new life into our whole school system. And let us hope that it would rekindle that "sacred flame," which has too often burned lowly—the ardor of the public-spirited citizen. It would reach the pulpit, the press, the bar, the home of the rich and poor alike. It would grow up [*sic*] in our midst an aristocracy of intellect and cultivation.]

The result of the movement was the enactment by the General Assembly of Ohio on April 16, 1870, of an "Act to enable cities of the first class to aid and promote education."[4] This law authorized the common council of any city of the first class then having a population of 150,000 or more, on behalf of the city, to accept funds and property, including property held in trust for educational purposes by persons and corporations, and use such property for the establishment and maintenance of a college or university. Any institution founded under the provisions of this act was to be under the control of a board of nineteen directors, consisting of the mayor, ex officio, and eighteen others elected by the council, the terms of the three expiring each year. Six of the eighteen were to be chosen from persons nominated by the board of education.

Acting under this law, the Council on March 14, 1871, passed "An ordinance to provide for the University of Cincinnati." This ordered the directors of McMicken University to turn over to the new Board all property, books, and papers.[5]

The law of 1870 was designed, as we have seen, to unite under the control of the city various educational and scientific foundations, none of which was large enough alone to attain a very high degree of efficiency. The University Board of Directors made repeated efforts during the first year or two of its existence to secure the consent of various other boards to a consolidation, but, with the exception of the Cincinnati Observatory, which became a part of the

[1] From the resolutions of the Board of Education December 28, 1868. Reprinted in *Report of Special Committee on the University Project.* p. 4.

[2] *Annual Report of the Cincinnati Common Schools, 1868–1869.* [Cincinnati, Board of Education, 1869]. pp. 76–77.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 57–58.

[4] *Ohio Laws.* LXVII, 86–89.

[5] *Ordinances of Cincinnati, 1878.* p. 530.

University in 1872, they all declined to consolidate at that time.[1] The School of Drawing and Design, which was already in successful operation, was continued.

On December 6, 1872, under authority of an act of the Legislature earlier in the year, bonds of the city were issued in the amount of $150,000 for the erection of buildings on the McMicken estate and the purchase of apparatus for the University.[2] In October, 1873, under temporary arrangements with the Board of High Schools, the first classes of the Academic [Liberal Arts] Department were opened in the Woodward High School building, under the management of the principal of that school.[3] In October, 1875, the fully organized Academic Department was housed in the newly completed building on the McMicken estate. By December of that year there was a faculty of seven and an enrollment of fifty-one.[4]

The development of the University since 1875 has included the affiliation and consolidation of other educational trusts with it, the expansion of the scope of its work, various changes in the method of selecting its Board of Directors, a change in the location of its plant, and a great increase in enrollment, income, and resources. Today the University occupies a campus of some forty-three acres at the southern end of Burnet Woods Park, to which it removed in 1895. Its Board of Directors has nine members who are appointed by the Mayor with the advice and consent of the Council for nine-year terms, one expiring each year. The University is now comprised of a Graduate School, Colleges of Liberal Arts, Engineering and Commerce, Education, Medicine, and Law, and Schools of Nursing and Health, Applied Arts, and Household Administration. It carries on an extensive program of late afternoon and evening classes and cooperates with the city through its Bureau of City Tests, Bureau of Municipal Research, and other channels. Its enrollment in December, 1927, was 8,549, and its total income—according to the latest available figures (1923-24)—was $1,105,847. Of this sum, $405,539 was contributed by the city. It is, perhaps, the best known of all municipal universities, and its example has influenced the development of other similar institutions, notably those at Louisville, Toledo, and Akron.

[1] *Annual Reports of the University of Cincinnati.* [Cincinnati, University of Cincinnati], 1872. pp. 12, 13; *Report of the Committee on the University as to Plan of Organization.* [Cincinnati, no date given]. p. 3.

[2] *Ohio Laws.* LXIX, 164; *Laws and Ordinances of the City of Cincinnati.* [Cincinnati, 1878]. p. 92.

[3] *Annual Reports,* 1873. [Cincinnati, University of Cincinnati]. pp. 5-6.

[4] *Annual Reports,* 1875. [Cincinnati, University of Cincinnati]. p. 5.

## DAYTON'S NEW ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

(*Continued from page 31*)

an approach from current problems. Even to render its largest contribution to the illumination and solution of present problems, the piece-meal contact with history does not secure its largest return. In order to learn the full lessons of a period, one must study it as a whole, intensively, become immersed in its civilization, appreciate the interaction of its parts, see it in relation to the preceding and succeeding eras. This means more than an excursion into the past now and then and a lifting out of a few facts.

The limitations of approaching the complex problem of any history period are shown by the following: The founding of the several colonies is studied in Grade VII as a means of developing the habit of respecting

the point of view of others.[1] The World War is studied in Grade VIII for the same limited purpose.[2] A superficial and biased point of view must result when a basic and complex social movement is viewed from one angle only.

Moreover, history has other values, such as leisure reading. Horn has shown how important this is.[3] One who reads history thus is interested in the story—the development—of history. Such an interest would seem to grow out of some contact with history in chronological form.

The full value of geography is sacrificed by such a course. Geography is a science, a body of significant natural laws, as well as a social study. To learn something about the ways and customs of peoples living elsewhere in the world does not necessarily involve a study of graphic forces and principles. The program outlined by Dayton might suffice for Grades I to VI. In Grades VII and VIII, history and geography should receive separate treatment, or a new type of joint course giving greater attention to the peculiar values of each subject should be provided.

These are some of the larger crucial issues in curriculum-making suggested by the Dayton curriculum. Much has been attempted in new ways. It is all suggestive. School folk will find it abundantly worth studying, for is a distinct advance in line with modern thinking. Those interested in a better curriculum owe Dayton a vote of thanks for its suggestive product.

## EDUCATIONAL READINGS

DOLCH, EDWARD W. *Combined Word Studies, JER*, 17:11–19, January, 1928.

Fifteen vocabulary studies which included words used by children in speech and writing, words employed by adults in letter-writing, and words found in reading-matter were combined to make this list an extensive word-count. Only 24 words appeared in each of the fifteen lists, while 4,141 words were found in only one of the lists. Of the words found in but one of the lists, 1,804 were taken from the author's earlier "Free Association Study" which was classified under children's use, and 1,577 came from Thorndike's *Word Book* which was listed as reading-matter. Within the 5,413 words found to be common to the three sources, were included all but 1,663 of the words designated as used by adults. One-third of these appeared in neither of the other classes, while each of the remaining thirds were common to either adults' use and children's use or adults' use and reading-matter.

TWITCHELL, DORIS F. *The Attitude of Universities and Colleges toward the Problems of Childhood, JER*, 17:30–44, January, 1928.

Catalogues of one hundred fifty collegiate institutions were examined to determine the number and extent of courses given dealing with child psychology, child care, and the psychology of elementary-school education. Courses falling within one of these classes were given in 88 percent of the women's colleges, 19 percent of the men's colleges, and 73 percent of the coeducational institutions. The average number of courses in each class was less than two (1.5 or less), and the number of credit-hours allowed was 3.1 or less. The obvious conclusion to be drawn from this article is the need for more courses and more extensive interest in each of these three phases of child study in the three types of institutions represented.

[1] *The Social Studies*, Bulletin No. 5, p. 300.

[2] Ibid., p. 360.

[3] Horn, Ernest. "The Application of Methods of Research to Making the Course of Study in History," *Twenty-second Yearbook of National Society for the Study of Education*. Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1923. pp. 235–39.

NOTE.—The abbreviations used in this number are: *JER*, Journal of Educational Research; *TCR*, Teachers College Record; *EAS*, Educational Administration and Supervision; *ASBJ*, American School Board Journal; and *ESJ*, Elementary School Journal.

JOHNS, R. L., AND HOLMSTEDT, R. W. *Equalization of Serial Bond Payments*, *JER*, 17:20–29, January, 1928.

Two students in a course given for superintendents at Teachers College, Columbia University, simultaneously worked out the three tables given in this article. By the use of these tables the school economist, knowing the amount of a serial bond issue, the duration of the bond, and the rate of interest can expeditiously determine the total amount to be paid any one year and the amount on the principal or amount of interest paid for any given year. Mr. Johns developed the tables using formulas based on simultaneous equations, while Mr. Holmstedt developed his method by the use of geometric progressions.

GATES, ARTHUR I. *Methods of Constructing and Validating the Gates Reading Tests*, *TCR*, 29:148–59, November, 1927.

In a previous number of the Record the author described his series of reading tests. In this article he explains why the four tests were chosen, given correlations and intercorrelations, and explains the construction of grade and age norms. He also shows how he determined the equivalence of units within the tests, and the equivalence of the test forms.

RAINEY, HOMER P. *An Experiment in Classifying High-School Pupils on the Basis of Achievement*, *EAS*, 13:528–44, November, 1927.

Students grouped on the basis of scholarship records and regrouped on the basis of intelligence quotients show a displacement of approximately fifty percent. Classification of students on the basis of scholarship decreased the amount of failure but made no improvement in the average marks received.

TOWNSEND, MARION E. *The Function and Organization of Educational Research Bureaus*, *ASBJ*, 75:37–40, 136, 139, November, 1927.

This investigation on the function and organization of educational research bureaus was restricted to cities in the United States of 100,000 population or over. Sixty-nine cities in this group filled out the questionnaire. Two tables are presented, one of which gives the personnel and salary of the head of the bureau, while the second gives the functions. Considerable reference is made to Dr. H. B. Chapman's dissertation on organized research in education.

BALDWIN, ROBERT D. *A Brief Sketch of the Problem of Public-School Finance*, *ASBJ*, 75:61–63, 140–44, December, 1927.

Starting with the assertion that "public-school finance is the most pressing problem which confronts American education at the present hour," the author attempts a brief survey of the problem of public-school finance. Such problems as increasing costs, state inequalities, the tax problem, budgeting, and equalization of apportionment are discussed. The solution of the problem, in the judgment of the author, will be found in the development of adequate budgeting, in a tax program covering all forms of wealth and income, and in a proper apportionment of the funds so raised.

BALLOU, FRANK W. *Determining Who Are Superior Teachers*, *ESJ*, 28:256–62, December, 1927.

The salary schedule for teachers in Washington, D. C., is based, at least for the upper group, upon measures of superior teaching which are administered under the supervision of Superintendent Ballou. To be placed on the list of superior teachers who draw additional salaries because of such superiority, one must take a written and oral examination and submit evidences of professional preparation and growth. A 1,000-point score card is used in determining the eligibility of teachers for the higher salary classes. One must make 700 points on this possible 1,000 in order to pass into the higher group. The scheme for determining who are superior teachers was made effective in June, 1927, and thus far it has worked out satisfactorily.

WADDELL, CHARLES W. *The Prognostic Value of Army Alpha Scores for Success in Practice Teaching*, *EAS*, 13:577–92, December, 1927.

Ratings of students in the University of California at Los Angeles on the Army Alpha intelligence test were compared with academic and practice-teaching marks. "Not one native American student in this group with a score of 80 or below had a satisfactory first semester record, and not one such has completed degree requirements six years after the original test. If one may be allowed to generalize from data such as these it may be said with virtual certainty that no man with a score of 80 or less on the Army Alpha (excepting foreign born) appears to have any chance of meeting the present requirements of the A. B. degree in the University of California at Los Angeles."

ARMENTROUT, W. D. *A Comparison of the Time Allotments of Subjects in Elementary Training Schools and Elementary Public Schools*, *EAS*, 13:625-27, December, 1927.

In the thirty-three schools studied, the elementary public schools have longer sessions than have the elementary training schools. More time is spent in the public schools on language, reading, spelling, and arithmetic; while the training schools spend more time on hygiene, history, music, industrial arts, penmanship, and supervised play. In elementary training schools, time allotments for first-grade reading vary from 85 to 600 minutes per week; in fourth-grade arithmetic, from 45 to 275 minutes per week. The same wide variation is true of all subjects listed.

MORT, PAUL R., AND STUART, MILO H. *Economy in Reporting and Recording Pupil Ratings*, *TCR*, 29:194-201, December, 1927.

Administrators who are inclined to develop elaborate records and reports should read and ponder on this article. The procedure may be applied to more than just the situation discussed in the article. The main difficulty with the procedure used is that the large mass of good, law-abiding students is neglected. One has to be very good or very bad to get any attention.

RISSER, FAYE, AND ELDER, HARRY E. *The Relation between Kindergarten Training and Success in the Elementary School*, *ESJ*, 28:286-89, December, 1927.

In Monticello, Indiana, the pupils with kindergarten training made substantially better grades in reading throughout the first five years of their school life than did pupils without kindergarten training. There was also some slight advantage in favor of the kindergarten-trained children in arithmetic and penmanship. The authors did not consider differences in intelligence as a possible reason for these differences in achievement.

GOOD, VIRGINIA, AND GOOD, CARTER V. *A Study of the Dean of Girls in Secondary Schools*, *EAS*, 13:599-610, December, 1927.

Returns from 104 questionnaires indicate that positions as deans of girls in secondary schools are growing in number and scope. Deans of girls usually are mature women with previous teaching experience and a sympathetic and attractive personality who have had no specific training for their work. They are usually college graduates and often hold graduate degrees. In about half the cases they rank as teachers and in the other half as vice-principals.

JOHNSON, FRANKLIN W. *An Analysis of the Duties Pertaining to a High School Library*, *TCR*, 29:216-22, December, 1927.

Very few high schools have appreciated the importance of adequate library facilities. The modern school would not think of omitting a gymnasium, or shops, or laboratories, yet the best laboratory of all, the library, is entirely neglected. The list of duties presented in the article will serve to give a better appreciation of the possibilities of a properly equipped, well-managed library.

## IN PAPER COVERS

ORLEANS, JACOB S., AND THOMPSON, HAROLD G. *A Survey of Achievement in First Half-Year Latin in New York State*. Albany, New York, University of the State of New York, 1928. 48 pp. (University of the State of New York Bulletin, No. 892)

Objective tests in Latin were given to 2,643 pupils who completed the first half-year of work. The results of the tests, together with suggestions for diagnosis and future procedure are presented in the bulletin. Among other things, it was found that the larger high schools made the best scores and that the rural high schools made the lowest scores. The median of the best schools was taken as a criterion, and the median score of the entire group was found to be 75 percent of this criterion. Passing marks and repeaters are also discussed.

HARTSHORNE, HUGH, MAY, MARK A., ET AL. *Testing the Knowledge of Right and Wrong*. Chicago, Religious Education Association, 1927. 72 pp. (Monograph No. 1)

This is a reprint of six articles which appeared in religious education during 1926-27. The authors have studied their immediate problem in a scientific manner, and the articles fairly bristle with correlations and intercorrelations, unweighted, weighted, corrected, predicted, partial, and others; as well as with coefficients of reliability and measures of variability. It is a good example of the technique of test-making even though the results may seem to some to be rather meager and inconclusive.

GUILER, W. S. *A Students' Work-Book in Spelling: A Plan for Individualizing the Study of Spelling.* Oxford, Ohio, The Author, 1927. 80 pp.

The three thousand words of the Iowa Spelling Scales have been put into sentences, and four possible spellings given for each word. The pupil is expected to go through the list and underline the correct spelling. In another word list he checks the words incorrectly underlined, and these words become his list for individual study. A few theoretical objections to the method occur to the writer. In the first place, does the ability to recognize the correct printed form insure the correct spelling of the word when the pupil has occasion to spell it? In the second place, will the pupil's checking catch all of the words that he might misspell? Probably not, but Dr. Guiler tested the matter experimentally and claims that his method proved superior to the old method of oral pronunciation. Again, is it good psychology to confront a child with the wrong spelling? This is defended on the ground that the pupil is exposed for too short a period to do harm. The methodology is interesting, and time will test its efficiency.

CARLSSON, VICTORIA. *A Bibliography for Cookery Investigation Problems.* New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 68 pp.

From an appraisal of courses in comparative, experimental, and investigational cookery the author has compiled a list of articles on the findings of research in this field. It should prove expecially useful to teachers and students in cookery research, since it considers not only a knowledge of cookery itself but also those sciences which serve as a background for problems. Popular articles as well as those of a technical sort are included. The spirit of research is encouraged in the first section on "Appreciation of Research."

## NOTES ON SECTIONAL PROGRAMS

### EIGHTH ANNUAL OHIO STATE EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE

APRIL 12, 13, 14 — RESERVE THE DATES

SPECIAL EDUCATION

Three interesting addresses are scheduled for the meeting of the Special Education Section, Friday morning, April 13, in the Botany and Zoology Building. Herman M. Adler, who is on the program, is Director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, Chicago, and has had wide experience in the problems of special education. "The Integration of Personality as a Problem of Education" is the topic of his address. Dr. Adler also speaks before the members of the Clinical Psychology Section.

What the public school is doing and should be doing in the education of crippled children, is a question in the minds of many administrators. Harry M. Howett, of Elyria, Ohio, executive secretary of the International Society for Crippled Children, will answer this question. He has chosen "The Public School and the Education of Crippled Children" as the formal title of his address.

L. W. Reese, of the Ohio State Department of Education, speaks on "The Dismissal of Mentally Handicapped Pupils from the Public Schools." We are interested in knowing whether he will say that such pupils should be dismissed or should not be dismissed from the public schools, and, in any event, what recommendations he has in regard to

these unfortunate children for whom at present the public schools are poorly adapted.

ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

"Teaching as a Fine Art," the general topic of the Eighth Annual Ohio State Educational Conference, is also the theme for the Elementary-School Principals' program, which will be given Friday morning, April 13. Superintendent John J. Maddox, of the St. Louis public schools, will be the opening speaker. Under the supervision of Superintendent Maddox the schools in St. Louis have progressed rapidly, especially in curriculum revision and the planning of school buildings. Mr. Maddox will discuss "The Principal's Contribution to Teaching as a Fine Art." "The Teacher's Contribution to Teaching as a Fine Art" will be presented by Miss Jean Marcellus, principal of the Wayne School of Toledo.

Miss Helen M. Hennessey, student-training teacher in the Columbus Normal School, will lead the discussion following the two main talks.

VILLAGE AND CONSOLIDATED-SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS

Addresses by Lee Driver, of the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, and by E. E. Lewis, Department of School Administration of Ohio State University, feature this program. Besides the two main addresses, discussions by four prominent people in the State are scheduled. The whole program will center around the matter of real fundamentals of classroom instruction. Superintendent Wickham, of Chagrin Falls, who is the Section Chairman, has arranged a meaty program. The topics are: address, "Setting the State for Classroom Learning" by Lee Driver; discussion, "The Assignment" by H. B. Alberty, Ohio State University; discussion, "Directed Study" by J. W. Whitmer, county superintendent, Lucas County; address, "The Inter-action between Teaching and Learning in the Classroom" by E. E. Lewis; discussion, "Units of Instruction" by A. G. Yawberg, county superintendent, Cuyahoga County; and discussion, "Practice—or Drill?" by Mrs. Snow, University of Toledo.

DEANS OF WOMEN

Dean Irma E. Voigt, of Ohio University, who is Chairman of the Deans of Women Section, has arranged an exceptionally full and interesting program beginning at 9:30 Saturday morning and lasting throughout most of the day. Mrs. Arleene Marley Jamison, dean of women at Muskingum College, will discuss "Health Education" and Miss Elizabeth Hamilton, dean of women at Miami University, will talk on "A Bit of Travel." The report of the committee on "A Dean of Girls in Every High School" will be presented by Mrs. Depew Head, of Columbus.

At 12:30 there will be a luncheon. After the luncheon, Mrs. Esther A. Gaw, dean of women of Ohio State University, will give a paper on "How to Discover the High-School Girl Who Should Receive Scholarships."

The afternoon program will be devoted to discussions concerning the maladjusted girl. The speakers are to be Miss Josephine Simral, dean of women, University of Cincinnati; Miss Florence Root, dean of women, Wooster College; Miss Mary Connett, dean of girls, Athens High School; Miss Jean G. Kitt, dean of girls, Massillon High School; Miss Ruth Immel, dean of women, Wittenberg College, and one other high-school dean.